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J. W. Putnam

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LAKE CHELAN

By HENRY HANSETT.

Chief Geographer, U. S. Geological Survey

To most readers, especially those of the East, this title conveys little information, for it is an almost unknown lake, in an almost unknown region. It lies in the northwestern part of the state of Washington, upon the eastern slope of the Cascade range, its lower end being near Columbia river, into which it is drained; thence it stretches northwestward in a long, winding ribbon, far up toward the heart of the range. Into the head of the lake flows Stehekin river, whose sources are in Cascade pass, at the summit of Cascade range. The river has numerous branches, all of which head in high, snowy mountains, among small glaciers, and it consequently brings a considerable volume of water to the lake.

In the northern part of Washington the Cascade range consists of a broad and extremely rugged mass of granite mountains, whose highest summits are between 10,000 and 11,000 feet in altitude. High up in the heads of the gorges and at the foot of the peaks are many small glaciers, the remains of others, much larger, which in times past extended far down the present stream valleys, filling them to great depths with streams of ice. Evidences of these are present in all the valleys and gorges of this part of the Cascade range. The occupation of these gorges by glaciers is so recent that in many of them the subsequent work of the streams by which they are now occupied has produced but trifling results. Only in a few places are evidences of extensive stream erosion seen.

The bed of Lake Chelan and its principal tributary, Stehekin river, together with the branches of that river, were at one time filled by a vast glacial system extending from the crest of the Cascades southeastward nearly to Columbia river. The glacier was nearly 100 miles long, and when it was in its prime the ice must have been several thousand feet in thickness.



MAP OF LAKE CHILAN AND VICINITY, IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON, 1899

A glacier is a river of ice, and it behaves almost precisely as a river of water does. Its effects upon its channel are almost precisely similar to those of a river upon its channel, excepting in the fact that all its operations are on a vastly greater scale. The channel of a river may be measured by yards or hundreds of yards, while that of a glacier is measured in miles. The depth

of a river may be a few feet only or a few scores of feet; that of a glacier may be thousands of feet. It is this greater size, volume, and weight which makes glacial ice behave like water. In such large masses ice is plastic, accommodating itself to inequalities of its bed, flowing with some freedom, spreading out and contracting, much as water does.

A word of caution must here be interpolated. The channel of a river, in which its water flows, must not be confused with its valley, which it drains. The above comparison refers to the *channel* of a river, not to its valley.

Glaciers in mountain regions commonly head in amphitheaters or cirques—basins lying directly at the heads of canyons, under the shadow of the summit cliffs. An amphitheater is surrounded on three sides by vertical walls or steep slopes, down which the ice and snow slide in avalanches, accumulating in the bottom. The effect is precisely like that of a waterfall. The falling snow and ice dig a hollow or depression at the foot of the steep descent just as water does. Such amphitheaters are found at the heads of all glacial gorges in high mountains, and today are found to contain small cirque lakes in place of the ice which once occupied them. From its head in the amphitheater the glacier moves down the gorge, scouring and cutting the bottom and sides as it travels. The ends of the mountain spurs are planed off instead of being trimmed to sharp, angular points as is done by streams in gorges cut by them. If the bottom of the cañon be uneven, if it contain abrupt elevations and depressions, the glacier flows over them as water would flow over similar obstacles in its channel, gradually cutting them away. Where the descent becomes abruptly steeper the ice, in bending to follow the surface, is commonly cracked, forming a network of crevasses, making travel over its surface very difficult and dangerous.

Where the main glacier is joined by a branch, the bed of the branch is commonly found to be at a higher level than the bed of the main glacier, because being larger and heavier the main glacier has greater cutting power; indeed, in many cases the beds of small branches are hundreds, or even thousands, of feet higher than that of the main glacier to which they are tributary. The parallelism between the glacier and the river in their channels is further illustrated by this fact. The surface of the ice in the main glacier and in the branch must have been at the same level, although the bottoms, as stated above, differ greatly

in elevation. So it is with a river at the point of junction of branches. The surface of the water must be practically at the same level in all cases, but the bottoms of the channels differ by the difference in depth of the streams at their point of junction. This fact affords us a measure of the minimum thickness of the ice at any place. It cannot have been less than the vertical distance between the bed of the main glacier and that of the tributary, and, indeed, must in all cases have been greater, owing to the thickness of the tributary.



LAKE OREILAN, IN THE SERRAS

To extend the comparison between a river and a glacier, it may be added that the central portion of the glacier flows faster than the bottom and sides, as they are retarded by friction, just as in the case of a stream. This is demonstrated by the gradually increasing curvature of the lines crossing the glacier, such as transverse lines of dirt or crevasses. In the upper portion of the glacier these may be straight, or nearly so, but lower down become more and more curved, with the convexity downward.

A glacier is constantly receiving upon its surface rock, gravel,

etc., which fall upon it from its walls. In its long journey from its source to its melting point, a journey which may occupy many years, large quantities of such material accumulate, and it naturally falls mainly upon the edges of the glacier, forming lateral moraines. Where two branches join, the two lateral moraines on the inside join and form a medial moraine, and thus in a complicated glacier system the main glacier below the junction of a number of branches may bear upon its surface many



WALLS OF LAKE CHILAN

moraines lying lengthwise with the glacier. At the melting point all these moraines are dropped in a confused heap, forming the terminal moraine. This may extend for a considerable distance up and down the valley, because the foot of the glacier moves backward and forward according to the season. In a wet, cold season the foot advances down the gorge, while in a warm, dry season it retreats toward its source.

Herein we may see another point of similarity between the

glacier and a certain type of river. In the arid regions of the West the streams which have their sources in the mountains flow down into the valleys and disappear, being absorbed by the dry soil and the thirsty atmosphere. These streams, like glaciers, bear detritus down from the mountains, and upon their disappearance in the valley they drop this detritus as the glacier does.

There are, therefore, certain characteristics by which the gorge produced by glacial erosion may be distinguished from that produced by aqueous erosion. The glacial gorge has the shape of



GLACIAL GORGE WITH LATERAL MORAINES

the capital letter U, while the waterworn gorge is a V-shaped notch. In a glacial gorge the spurs separating the tributaries have their ends blunted or planed off, while in a waterworn gorge they are sharp and angular. In a glacial gorge the tributaries enter the valley above its level, while in a waterworn gorge they commonly grade down to its level. A glacial gorge has an amphitheater at its head; a waterworn gorge has not. A glacial gorge is commonly lined near its lower end with lateral moraines and across its foot stretches a terminal moraine, and often this terminal moraine has formed a lake.



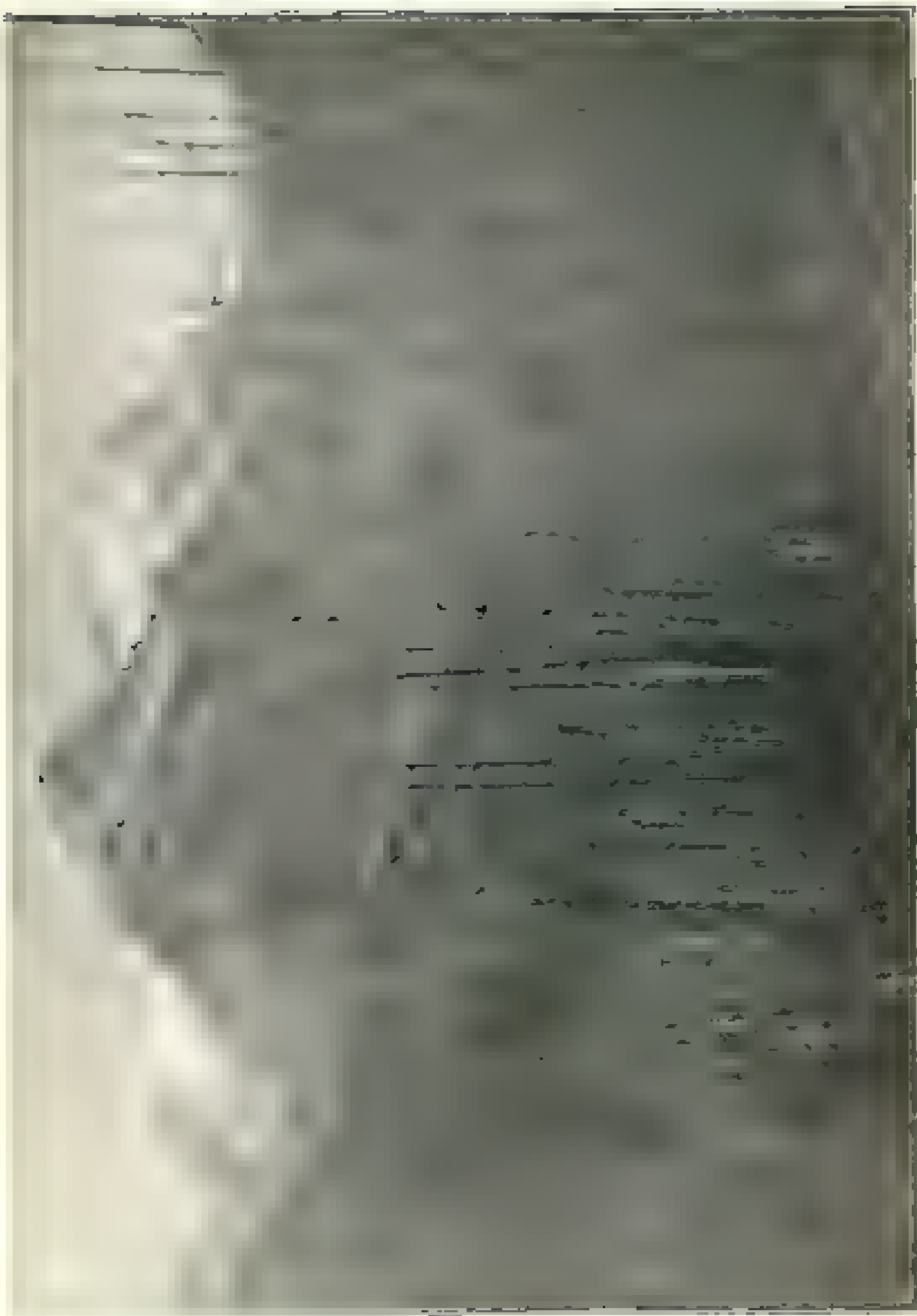
With the exception of lateral moraine Lake Cleary and its tributaries, present-day water features predominate glacially and owing to the fact that the ice has but recently melted the general recent erosion has made but little progress, the glacial forms are but little washed and reveal the most prominent features in the landscape.

Crossing the narrow pass from the west, the cascade, named by the Indians an amphitheater, enclosed on the west and south by a low, rounded wall surrounded by low terraces. On the north is the pass and on the east the small trees, partly forming the lower rim of the amphitheater. The hollow of the amphitheater contains, all the year around, a green, snow-free area a mile or more in diameter, which gives rise to the Hot Spring River. The accompanying illustration is taken from the rim of the amphitheater looking a westerly direction, which appears in the background, with the snow field below it.

From the summit of the lower rim of the amphitheater there is a steep descent of several hundred feet, down which the Steepbank passes in a series of cascades. The valley, at first narrow, broadens as it becomes deeper and takes a shaped form of a glacial valley becomes more pronounced. At intervals at short intervals small branches, like a stream. These lead among

over which as they leap in great leaps. One such stream here is called Hot Spring River, on the left-hand side of Steepbank River where its waters are derived from a small glacier. The waterfall known as the Great Leap, of the stream over the edge of the amphitheater, which here is pronounced.

The walls of the gorge of the Steepbank River range from 4000 to 5000 feet in a little above the bottom of the valley and the high ranges from near vertical at the top to 45° or 50°. Near the mouth of Cold Spring Creek, some 15 miles above the mouth of the lake, the wall is fairly 6,000 feet in height, descending in one great sweep from the summit of the mountains down to the bottom. Cold Spring Creek coming in on the right, the cold spring stream flows on a level several hundred feet above the level of the lake. The Hot Spring Creek which joins the Steepbank River is four miles farther down, coming in from the right, and a large fresh flow of water, several hundred feet above the level of the Steepbank River, descending to it by a series of cascades and waterfalls in a waterfall gorge 200 or 300 feet deep, which at



has no trace of the retreat of the glacier — nor ice erosion has any very noticeable, not at the junctions, or on even of these branches, but of the main stream are a feature, although in case the branches are nearly or in a size to be half or two of the great valley, and as marked as in the case of a main or minor one. From a few notations to be seen that the ice must have been at least 3,000 feet above the gorge of the stream, and somewhat of the same or more, in the case of a general but height above its bed.

Large channels between 50 and 100 feet in length and even in width, and a few or more in breadth — except near the lake, is marked throughout its course between high steep, rocky, rising at angles of 40° to 45° directly toward the water's edge to an altitude of 3,000 or 4,000 feet above the sea. The elevation of the lake above the sea is 1,100 feet, and its canyon walls rise 4,000 or 5,000 feet above its surface. Scarcely all the stream which flows into it are small, and a wide river is seen in a series of cascades. There is a large series of small, rocky, and rocky, which are a few feet to 100 feet, which is upon the west side, from the divide of the Cascade range, a long low high peaks where its sources are fed from a series of rivers and its valley is a great gorge.

As we go up and the lake is narrow and its depth increases gradually, so that about one-fifth of its length it reaches a depth of (say) 100 feet, its bottom being therefore 100 feet above sea-level. Then its depth increases gradually to the bottom and out of it as rapidly as it increases. The rock walls which enclose the lake are a changingly parallel to one another. The high mountains which border it at a low elevation down near the lake, and then gradually rise up to the lower country and up to the west side and then up to the west.

The country which the lake is fed is the high mountain range of the glacier. The lake is now fed by a stream, which has cut through its term of its course, and after a short course of a few miles and a descent of 300 feet joins the main stream. At the present outlet are a few small streams, but the lake is the shape of a series, cut through from the west, or rather south, side of the lake to the north river. The lower of these, known as the, which leaves the lake at a point about 100 feet above the present level of the lake, and a steep descent to the main river and is known. The lake is now the lake at a point about 100 feet above the present outlet, and is known.



lower, its elevation being only about 100 feet above the present lake level.

Lake Chelan is not difficult access. The traveler leaves the Great Northern railway at Wenatchee, and upon a river thence leaves a week a little steam or horse trail to the mouth of Chelan river, and a stage covers the remaining three or four miles to the outlet of the lake, where is situated the little town of Lakeview. On the

days when the steamer does not run on the Columbian trip, journey from Wenatchee to Lakeside may be made by stage. The lake is traversed by a small steamer which, leaving Lakeside,

the morning, reaches Sholex, at the head of the lake where there is a hotel, and in the afternoon returning the next day.

On the shores of the lower part of the lake there are no more settlements, but with a little motorboat portion the only signs of habitation are a few log huts, and above Sholex and there are no settlements, and travel in this region must be upon horseback with pack trail.



FREDERIC W. PUTNAM,

President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science

Papers for the Annual Meeting Boston 1898

The presence of the American Association passed almost unnoticed to an anthropologist, a student of the British Association on man, an archaeologist to a comatologist. There are no more illustrious names in the scientific annals of the world; for those of which the names of Cuvier and Buffon, Bosc and Cuvier are now forgotten. The election of Professor Frederic Ward Putnam as President of the American Association was an event of more than ordinary interest and significance to American scientists. Professor Putnam has, in his own right, a record of achievement to which he is entitled by forty years' hard and diligent work of the highest character, but also won the admiration and regard of all who are everywhere by the significance of the scientific work, and not only so, but also by the unflinching courage with which he has served the cause of science at a long period of twenty-two years as president and secretary of the American Association.

Frederic Ward Putnam was born in Salem, Massachusetts April 16, 1858. His paternal ancestors were the Putnams,

the first half of the seventeenth century. Young Putnam received private instruction until 1876, and as he did not go to college, he devoted himself to study of natural history at home. In every family for the pursuit of his father's study. When he was but a dozen years of age he had compiled a "Catalogue of the Birds of Essex County, Massachusetts," and about the same time he was made curator of the library in the house of Dr. West.

At this time the attention of Louis Agassiz was drawn to the young man's fervent love of natural history, and through his influence he went to Cambridge, where he entered the Lawrence School for Science, intending to devote himself to the study of the sciences. It was not carried out from the fact that he was soon made assistant in the Zoological Museum and afterward appointed curator of the Peabody Museum. His father's influence for several years, aided by the excellent neighbors in

ridge is so narrow and the river works down a most recent ly on
 canyons to the Mesquima valley and on the other side to the
 head of the sand-canyon. As this lead to Mesquima river. A bridge
 would show a pack trail and an overfall or slope.

The present form of the mesa is due largely to the existence
 of a heavy mass of sandstone which forms the topography and
 protects the softer underlying rock. It is weathered on the top
 in places vertical cliffs around the outer edges. The surface
 of the mesa, however, at the head of the numerous small
 canyons, erosion has produced in a peculiar manner and one
 which was found by the engineers to be highly favorable for
 their purposes. Along the edges near the top of the canyons cer-
 tain portions of the sandstone have weathered, leaving great
 shelves, protected above by the overhanging masses. These
 shelves can be reached after with great difficulty as the cliffs
 are so steep they may be 100 feet or more vertically, and across from
 top to bottom a distance. The surface of these open, gradually
 sloping down to the floor, so that these great horizontal

shelves or 100 feet, and in length may stretch for several hundred

feet. Around and on the mesa are found numerous fragments of
 pottery or of the pebble and here and there mounds of refuse,
 showing the habitation of the Indians of the mesa. The numerous

remains of stone towers or prominent points show that the acts of
 defense were an important part of their life. It is, however,
 under the shelter of the great overhanging rocks that we find the
 ruins of most of the houses. Here, in the dry climate, protected
 from the occasional fierce storms, the dwellings of the future are as
 comfortable as an even organic matter has hardly and to be any
 change. The great stone towers are two story and a half
 and higher, in the poles of refuse it down to a part of the cave
 where the foot up reaches the floor are the worn out mounds

The clothing of the people has no further or refuse has retained its
 texture and even in places the wool. No fragments of metal have
 been found, but the metal ornaments are of bone, wood, or stone.

First as to John Jones—when traces of the water were necessary for the reason that the essential elements of which the elements have not yet found their way into the dust masses. As we enter on the history of knowledge, man have managed to atmosphere—the envelope of air above the earth. At first the atmosphere was very thin, it became more and more dense, then water was not now evaporated in rain and snow and clouds. As it was the atmosphere, here as a gaseous atmosphere surrounding the earth, with a reversed composition, if a complex mixture of substances, chiefly of oxygen and nitrogen. This atmosphere is one of the components, the outermost of the earth.

Since the beginning of knowledge, man men have perceived the waters of the earth, and, as time has gone on, they have recognized more and more clearly the substantial unity of the standing waters of oceans and seas and lakes, the running waters of springs and rivers, and the solid waters of Arctic and Antarctic snows and the glaciers of mountain and plateau, and they are coming to extend the unity to include the atmosphere as one of the constant gases of the atmosphere. Water is a definite material substance existing in three forms, as solid, liquid and gas, the solid, as ice, the liquid, as water, and the gas, as steam. In the atmosphere—the second of the four atmospheres—covering the greater part of the solid earth and covered by the greater part of the atmosphere.

Human knowledge began with the recognition of the solid earth, as time passed the knowledge became more and more through the endless intermingling between the solid earth and the atmosphere, and today man's intelligent perception recognizes a terrestrial atmosphere, as well as a solid and rocky earth. In fact, passing from the rivers and lakes and even to the mountains, as the extent of the atmosphere is greater than the solid earth, as the atmosphere is the greater part of our planet. Now it is only the superimposed portion of this spherical mass which lies with a rough surface, as it is the rocky crust of the earth, the object matter of the science of geology, it consists of a wide variety of mineral substances, namely of mineral rocks of a specific gravity.

Regarding the earth, the earth is the solid and the earth and the earth is the ocean; all of the geographic and topographic features as well as the features of the earth are built up or carved out of the solid earth, the water, the valleys, the mountains of the world represent the vast mass of the

that it, when it is not used to end the *litany*—the end of all prayers—says:

It is a revelation of terrestrial things made with the utmost necessity to furnish a means of the establishment of the position of the place every man can depend on with the view of a few minutes. Now know we go of the earth's interior is not out through a geology but through the sister sciences astronomy. We are aware that within recent years astronomy have revealed to systems our sun, the planets, and moons as well as the distant stars and satellites which follow the planets, and the long-extended rings of Saturn—the vast assemblage of our solar system—and the paths of the comets and satellites have been surveyed, and each of the bodies has been measured with such exactness that their positions and distances are known with absolute accuracy. Let us now attempt to survey with the same thoroughness and workmanship some of the things that are in the world which have been weighed with an accuracy no less than that of the greatest measuring out sugar and flour and find the results of pearls, salt, and diamonds is have been surveyed as accurately as the roadways and even the runways of the air line

however, in the other place, it is true yet a little nearer
 accuracy, a mistake that is much closer is nearly six per
 cent of what the $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent is, the constant of the $\frac{1}{2}$ per
 cent square. To multiply it is known beyond, perhaps, that
 the earth has an atmosphere, and a considerable one, known
 exterior, and this is a great advantage, as part of the air is
 not only to be called a *conosphere*, but it can be of the
atmosphere.

In the long effort to see to it that a well-informed literary public is supplied before you can get round to say how things are to be to estimate a new point of view, as whole passages of my writings are interpreted, yet fairly or not, the first is to my eyes and I believe to my readers, the most important. I am now attempting, not to bring a new idea before you, but to provide a stage for a new way of handling every word to which I have to say, thus to give you, instead of a whole bundle of isolated ones, as I have been doing. I am not, of course, to omit the workings of a number of my own life, as revealed by the reading of my other books.

Let us now consider the relations between the geospheres.

In the first place the nature of the geospheres is and is in state of physical combination. The atmosphere is almost wholly gaseous, the hydrosphere for the most part is, although a part solid and in small and gaseous, the lithosphere is almost wholly solid, though a considerable part is gaseous, chiefly as the pores of the soil, while a small part may be liquid, as the temporary and permanent lakes. For the present the entire sphere may be considered a trisolid. Thus the four geospheres represent the three well known states of matter together with a fourth state which is not certainly known from direct observation. It is derived exclusively as an illustration between the three exterior geospheres that gives character to the earth as the theater of life and the source of food, by the part and least and man are now dependent on the atmosphere for the solid part of the bodily substance, on the hydrosphere for the fluid part, and on the atmosphere and on the atmosphere for the breath of life.

In the second place, the exterior geospheres, at least are, designated here as in physical combination, in some degree inter-mixed. The greater part of the atmosphere floats over the waters and lands of the earth as a continuous growing to do as it is related outward, an early estimate of its thickness was forty five miles, but the American physicist Woodward has recently shown that the outer portion is much less dense than at first supposed, and that the total thickness of the matter extends to a radius of the solid earth. A small part of the atmosphere is composed of water, of the waters of the hydrosphere, and a few floating waters of rivers and brooks, and air, but pushed down into the lithosphere, filling therefore in the rocks as a playing medium for the various and physical changes ever proceeding in the earth's crust. In the third place, the greater part of the system now exists in the atmosphere, as a field and, hence, a considerable number of the atmosphere is in the form of aqueous vapor, and a much greater volume penetrates the lithosphere as ground water or it still more in the form of water, and with the solid earth's surface, the material of the lithosphere is in some part dissolved or suspended in the waters or fluid or the air, at the same time there is an obscure, terration, however the lithosphere proper and the entire here, is an heated in a sense and other phenomena, as, perhaps in the case of the atmosphere and

the rocks, for there are certain reasons why they cannot do so. We have set forth the regarding of the centrosphere as an aggregation of compounds and substances, which as the lithosphere here is an aggregation of liquid substances. The blending of the exterior geospheres is especially indicated where the three are in mutual contact, as in the terrestrial surface, where which men live and which the geospheres denude. In the rocks, the plants which support the vegetation, the animals which cover the plants, and the crowding human organism which dominates all the others are blended in the ever-changing life.

Just as the geospheres are intermingled in our world, so they are in some measure intermingled in celestial phenomena. The atmosphere is a aerial ocean, ever stirred with currents due primarily to the rotation and revolution of the sphere. The elements composing the denser and volume of the densest are the lithosphere, the waters of the ocean are evaporated into the atmosphere, carried far off as currents as aqueous vapor, and then precipitated to flow back again as fresh water, while the body of the ocean is stirred by currents set in motion by the ever-moving atmosphere as well as by waves produced by rotation and revolution; the lithosphere is constantly destroyed and reconstructed by the moving waters of the hydrosphere, while the geosphere is warped and distorted as the tilted mountains and depressions by the unequal distribution of the oceanic pressure. So the normal movements of the geospheres are intermingled, and most of them from the very beginning of the earth's history. From the very beginning, continents are lifted and submerged to the trade winds and oceanic currents, may be traced to the movements of the centrosphere.

Let us now consider for a moment how the conditions and motions of the exterior geospheres would be affected by circumstances which at first might seem trivial, but thereby we may see more clearly how delicate are the interrelations on which terrestrial life and human activity depend. Suppose the mountains of the earth were raised, say, 3000 ft. what would follow? Yet common sense, more of experience, would tell that not only all of the hydrosphere would come to exist as an ocean, but not a part of the atmosphere, that the atmosphere would thereby be multiplied in volume and density, changed in substance and modified in character, yet that the lithosphere would remain substantially unchanged save that some of its solidation would be dissolved in the denser atmosphere.

yet even an slight increase in circumstances as an increase of temperature by 100° would raise the hydrosphere from the surface of gently modify the atmosphere.

Let us next consider the effect which would follow the reduction of the temperature of the earth 1 y, say, 4 K° F., something we should have been unable to do a generation ago, but which we can now do easily by reason of recent inventions and discoveries in physics. You will remember that at about a score of years ago the state of France and Prussia of Saxony and Bohemia liquefied different gases by the application of pressure at low temperatures. Many of you know that one of the experiments was carried out by the distinguished chemist and physicist of London, Howard, who liquefied one gas after another until every gaseous substance known to man with the exception of one had been reduced to the liquid state and I am sure that you will be familiar with the fact that our countrymen have been the work of our European neighbors and has journeyed to a peaceful and secure and more abundant life, by the application of pressure. I am sure you will find this

by our wave, as worthy of more than passing notice. For its value has given us a kind of new bond to the powers of nature with a portion of power and a portion of wisdom in its details. Great things were promised, a country of control where we first began to realize electrically far more about our other powers, but it is a biggression. Now, a portion is a little greater than we are a time or two or three at 20° below zero, so we know that if the temperature of our planet were to be reduced by 40° the atmosphere would become too small to exist and would shrink to a mere little droplet of its present bulk and be ineffective in a long time; we know, to a day long before the formation was over, because the atmosphere was at once too small as our planet would become a part of the lit us, etc., etc. The waters of oceans had taken it and a portion of us would be from the sea export of water into a dry ~~where~~ where rocks of crystals, etc. to 12 under some pressure, just as granite and limestone and other rocks are, but not present temperature, so we would see the rock and it to be rock which now exists, by this transformation the volume of the atmosphere would be eight times that of the present oceans. The present atmosphere would be enormous but, in no way, for an atmosphere of hydrogen or a score of yards of it would

wash the frozen globe, leaving continents and islands just as above its surface in a geography as different as differing not greatly from that of the present. Over this globe pass a row of great, wide, parallel valleys, it is supposed that it is upon these, or near them, is our atmosphere; and the mass of water is supposed to be of a very small extent.

[illegible]

regulated by relief from pressure like the waves of water in a dry river course or slowly seeping water in a concrete rising cracks formed through interaction between the geosphere, atmosphere and the cooling exosphere, to give the latter its

characteristic conformation. The atmosphere now gives a trend of things to absorption of air and water into the rocks, leaving a dense pocket of exosphere and lithosphere only, awaiting the pass through space like our frozen moon, yet there is a faint promise in a fifth geosphere from our thorough delicate respect on among the three exterior spaces of the earth, by acting at the common boundary of the three, dependent on all, yet able (at least in some measure) to control the relative *cosmophysiosphere*, composed as the earth is of potent and overgrown elements of about which loosely envelopes the world.

Just a few words more, if you please concerning the general relations among the geospheres. The atmosphere is a body of gas cooled primarily by temperature, lithosphere is a

body, here is a mass of rock on earth, and by temperature, gravity, and a more complex chemical affinity than is found in the relative minor elements of water, the exosphere is a trace of an extremely metalized body, cooled as we know in ways that are not well known; the several geospheres combine to form a planet controlled by temperature, gravity, chemical affinity and perhaps by magnetic waves, extends to other planets and outdistances many of the features of the features of the geospheres, i.e., these characteristics four planets are largely determined from within, yet it is not to be forgotten that the exosphere contributes to the making of the others, not thus to them. It is of the planet and in some ways is the shaping of the cosmos that has already been and dated in the last chapter.

Let us now proceed to consider a few of the strange relations among the geospheres which affect cosmic economy. We have good reason for supposing that the earth is a cooling body, that some of its principal heat is continually passing into space to affect its many radiations and other bodies, but do we know why the temperature of the earth is not lowered more rapidly why the lowering is so slow as not to be noticeable by the observations of humanity? We know that if the earth were empty and a few grains of interstellar space and cooling by the

radiation of heat it is equal it would soon be reduced. As we know too that in this case the temperature of its surface would be determined only by two factors, viz., (1) the outgoing state of the ball itself, and (2) the resistance of a layer of air near it. Now on examining the planet Mars and the moon, for example, as a diagram of the imagination, we do not find that the temperature of its surface is determined or even perceptibly affected, by its own, super heat, we know that the temperature of the external earth is determined by the heat received from sun.

It follows, of course, that the earth is not merely a conical body suspended in cold space. On examining more exactly the conditions determining our temperature we find there are two, viz., (1) radiation or absorption of solar heat, and (2) conservation of a considerable part of this heat for a time by a terrestrial mechanism. It is a well known reality that only in interstices of an earth's exterior geography. The most important conservation agency is the aqueous vapor of air which is only a result of the heat to be given off in condensation, but serves to check radiation from the earth into space. When the surface of the ocean, a bill of water is evaporated to be blown high in the air and is carried far over the horizon, where it is used a part of its heat is employed in raising the temperature of surrounding air, water, and rock; so that water is only in the form of vapor stores heat more effectively than any other substance we know of, and we are a united world more effectively aqueous vapor as a blanket blocking evaporation. Dry air is demonstrable, but vapor holds on to cracks radiating from the earth as a natural check radiating from the body. Since there is no part of the earth, even on the deserts and polar fields, where there is not an appreciable quantity of aqueous vapor in the air, this substance forms a clothing for the earth retarding its temperature, rendering it habitable, and making it what it is today the stage of our activities.

There is another class of special relations between the agencies which I shall call, like to the foregoing, a part of a new geography. As before you add out, the rocks of the earth's crust or lithosphere are permeated by water, in the form known to all as ground water or of course sea.

In geological geologists, Professor Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin has recently shown, that in a ground water plays an important role in changing the texture and structure of rocks, especially at depths where the pressure is great and the

Temperature higher than at the surface. It is a well known

rates (mean = 1.1) for sample components or tasks. Accordingly,

perature, as is frequently the case deep in the earth's crust, the rock-latter is dissolved at the points and places of greatest pressure and precipitates, or reprecipitates, at only the same points and places of less pressure, so that, for example, a crystal of calcite of wet and a rock-latter may be permanently dissolved at the points of high pressure and precipitated at the points of low pressure. The crystals gradually grow in the direction of pressure and elongating themselves in the orthogonal direction. Therefore, the property of a dissolving and precipitating agent, that part of the hydrosphere which penetrates and submerges the lithosphere and determines the texture and structure of most of it rocks. It has transformed the sands and silts into clays of argillaceous rocks into shales, sandstones, and conglomerates. In some cases it has reconverted or metamorphosed these rocks into gneisses, quartzites, and marbles. At a more general way it has acted as remoulding agent of deposited rocks into lavas and other rock masses. This reformatory effect of water is particularly noticeable in that it reveals something of the character of the geosphere, whose other materials are known, as well as such of observations only by water as a solvent and precipitant in the form of lavas, vein-stones, and other rocks of hydrothermal origin. These in essence regard the atmosphere as a thermal and gaseous regulating factor, and the hydrosphere as a reformatory and conserving factor, both interacting with the lithosphere in the same way as to develop the atmosphere and convert it into a permanent factor of climate. But the point is here that the atmosphere is not the present. Yet the world where a stable equilibrium between lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere was particularly maintained by the waters both of the surface and the interior. The two inorganic, lithosphere are in a stable equilibrium as well as the hydrosphere of the hydrosphere. The atmosphere is formed from the formation of the lithosphere of and from the hydrosphere itself in the form of extended lavas and other related rocks. It is shown also by the hydrosphere and lithosphere of the hydrosphere that water is a constant factor in the formation of the atmosphere.

ment to some extent, or the splitting of mountains; it is not impossible that in soil more interesting though obscure facts may be the natural product of loose-textured solids in a more or less stationary condition in provinces subject to long-term, heavy, or even of exceptional volumes of solution—e.g., the Gulf of Mexico, the world's most notable province of land-ice, whose configuration suggests a typhoid "slump" which may be reproduced experimentally by pouring a few drops of benzene and ether into a vessel liquid at the critical temperature, but this most interesting relation may also be traced over the time present with less suggestive simile by the

fact that both the solid atmosphere and trans-sphere spheres appear to be inseparable at a critical point of time.

may be considered a permanent state and in substance as passing a critical point controlled by the same factors, and

most puzzling facts in geology.

There are other relations between the geospheres, in terms of which, however, there will not permit me to mention a title or even a hundredth part of them, yet there is one more relation which, I think, points strongly to those geographers who, like myself, always see the lands and the waters from the same standpoint, and I beg you to indulge for the three minutes required to set it forth briefly. My predecessor Mr. Heddley, one of our ~~most~~ defined for you the natural provinces of America, and I show you that the features of the land, formed during the ages by the work of running waters, shape the character of our people. I must be and permit me to add a word to his theme as well as to that of the illustrious French landscape-painter, so that we can see the western hemisphere, and the waters are so related as to form a continuous North American continent, the western boundary of the North Temperate zone, during the ages the centres have been carved and made according to his work and has interacted with the atmosphere and the hydrosphere.

Our hemisphere produces a atmosphere of far-reaching features, a ocean and the atmosphere, stretching along the coast of the land, abundant everywhere at the surface, and fertile soil, charged often at the depths with mineral treasures—the water is rich, pure, and wasted or unutilized, and the land is often a thought and action, even to a small. Then, since the land

were found and for it, agriculture spread more rapidly than ever before more rapidly than would be possible under other conditions. Next the magnificent changes and rich production of an improved transportation facilities and steam was introduced in the effectively same way, as possible under other conditions. Much of the material just represented by a brief and I would say, the views of men are fully supported by the facts of history, and America became a nation of inventors, a people of progress and science, geography was studied more broadly than ever before, possible in a fully primitive, grew into a science of government, inspired by the elements of the formations and the growth of resources, put on by intelligence and action but I would hardly be a pessimist. If the country had the world in their grasp, if the water resources were augmented by the association of the I have said that no so far system has been developed and measured with the same exact accuracy during these years, and may not add that that work was done by American geographers, and that today the mapping of the world is being pushed by our scientists and is based on the American work. And we are now engaged in a project by reason of modern development of a new technology. We have not better opportunity and have the same of other countries for research concerning minerals we have in Alaska, but in other cases it is relatively few in every part of the country on the face of it. Every day we are on every place, a hundred years ago we have a wider range of all time constantly before us than any other part of the world. It is going to be a long time before we have through the same thing to be the representatives of the world, and we are going to be a more constructive and finally to our own good to our people starting to do a great part of the work. I believe has ever a nation. The place on which some system is based on the material from us. We have never stage, a million years ago, we have never been able to move on and wonder at a possible other way one of the last body than the world has as a whole. Especially if you go to the United States, our country are working forward in the race for riches and attainment, surpassing all other nations, and our application of scientific knowledge is kept pace with our technological knowledge. The fact that English people in Egypt want to have natives furnished with the same and they want to America, knowing that, despite the enormous increase, the order can be filled more quickly than anywhere, today if a bridge is to be as it were put up it can be

engagements of other countries for the future. An ocean of phrases are called to the task. Our progress in application has come equal with our progress in knowledge to strengthen the moral character, to put upon a free and forceful individuality greater than other countries know—an individual vitality splendidly expressed in the facts before me. This excited individuality is displayed in the perfect combination of strength, in more complete union of the human frame, as the world has ever seen before. It is revealed in moral vigour, stress and strength of character. It is personified in George Washington's grand character—the first expression of our civilization between man and man.

America's latest revelation to the world. The moral character of America gives out our character to America, our practical, the spontaneous product of free minds, more abundant deeper than any sentiment brought out by revealed truth.

Our country will make the recent map, for which, I am told, the publisher, the map of New York and the royal court of Arizona is about to order to be printed in a new style.

The basis of our civilization is moral, spiritual, and a social organization for the expression of that moral, spiritual, and social life. When we are in a position to complete as a social organization, they are here. It is much more perfect in civil life, a more complete conquest over nature toward work, our bodies, our rights are lost, and our freedom and individuality are a tower of moral strength, and we are in danger of being lost and telephoned and pressed, a kind of thought and expression, which is the strongest moral and political character we have seen. It is the moral force, the expression of the moral and political life, which I have in that country, referring to the newspapers, most of the great newspapers of the globe, who are not to be sure, and our minds are in danger of the center of the world, the water of the world, the great force of the great of humanity. And this is the best of the, the best of the resources of the civilized spheres, inspired by the action of freedom and guided by moral enlightenment, which you depend. That has placed America in the forefront of the world, and the heart of the world.

A temporary meeting of the National Geographical Society, held in the Lecture Hall of the Boston Society of Natural History, Boston Museum Building, August 25, 1908, Vice-President W. J. McGee in the chair, the following resolutions were adopted:

Whereas, in light of the increasing extension of our forest products to a vast section of humanity, and the consequent extension of questions of transportation, questions of tariffs of products, bearing are freight rates, and grave international questions arise;

Whereas the National Forest Association of America has undertaken to collect and compile the world forest information and statistics of commercial agriculture;

Resolved, That the National Geographical Society express its deep sense of the value to mankind of the work this league has pledged its societies and members to do in this international work;

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the club to coordinate with these members in the National Forest Association of America, and to take such other steps as may be necessary to carry out this part.

It is accordingly with the resolutions thus clearly appointed Mr.

Thayer of New Haven, and Arnold Hague, of Washington, as a committee to take up this question on behalf of the National Geographical Society.

MISCELLANEA

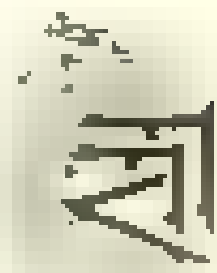
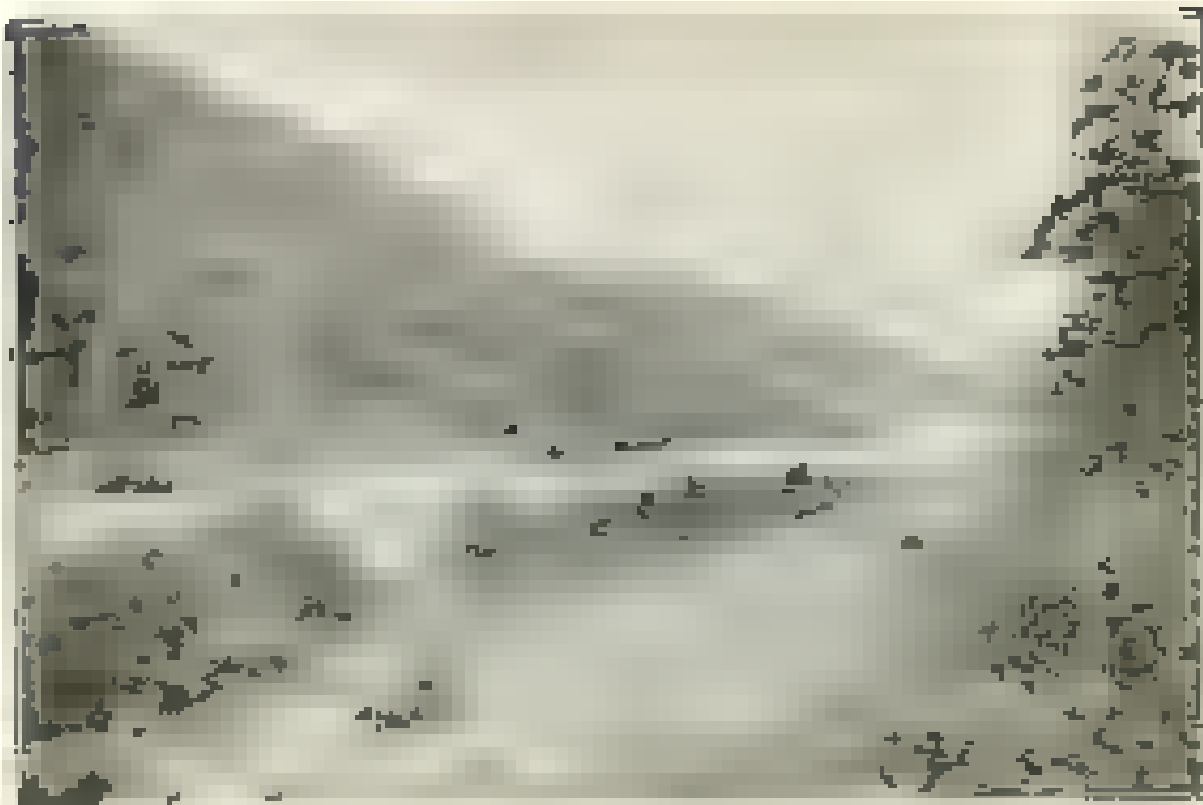
It has recently been ascertained that the British consumption of sugar has fallen a few pounds per head below that of France, Germany, Austria, Holland, and Belgium combined.

The annual revenue of Canada during the fiscal year 1907-1908 amounted to \$100,000,000, an increase over the preceding year of \$21,000,000. The expenditures for the corresponding year of \$101,000,000, an increase of \$2,400,000.

A Danish expedition to explore the coast south of Copenhagen (between 55° and 57° north) and along the coast of the island of Bornholm, and to collect botanical and zoological specimens, sailed from Copenhagen on August 1st, under Captain Andersen. The ship, the *Godthaab*, and a small schooner, the *Albatros*, and is expected to return in a week.

The Duke of the Albany. Prince Luigi of Savoy has decided to be accompanied on his forthcoming by a successful ascent of Mt. Agung in Sumatra. A private party that has hitherto decided the efforts of the mount in regard and the mountain ex. During the during sent was accompanied by a private party.

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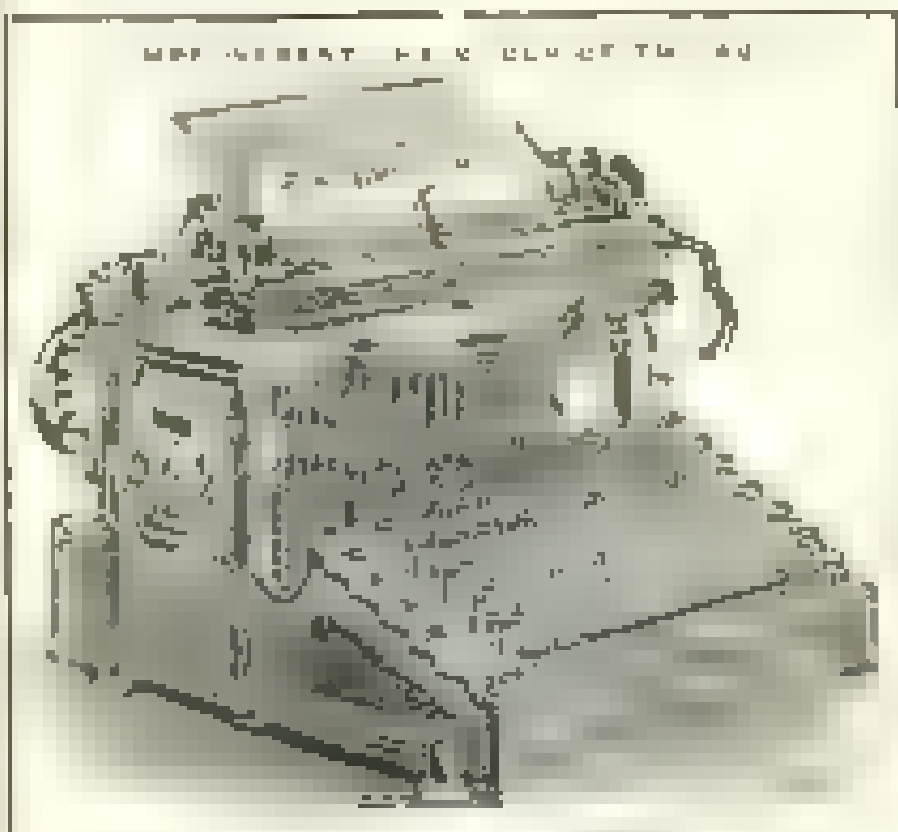
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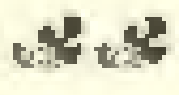
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